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ABSTRACT

In order to assess the effects of home backgrounds upon a child's performance in school, data were collected from 518 students and their mothers. Interviews with mothers covered topics such as: family background and parental expectations and aspirations; parental contact with the school; use of communication media; child management and personal qualities important for the child; family income; and interviewer's rating of type and quality of the family's dwelling. Data collected from the pupils included: ability and achievement test scores; an index ranking the pupil as an under-, average- or over-achiever; teacher rating questionnaires; and children's questionnaire. Although study results identify a number of home background factors relating to achievement status and socio-economic background, the authors feel that future studies ought to explore the influence of peer groups, the "caretaker" versus "learning environment" of different homes, and the ways in which parental occupations and educational aspirations and expectations are communicated to the child. (Author/SES)

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE HOME TO "UNDER- OR OVER-ACHIEVEMENT"

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E. N. Wright

January, 1971.

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers and parents alike are concerned about how their pupils (children) are progressing in school. Are they doing as well as they should be doing? A previous Research Department report[1] posed two questions:

> "What does the child bring with him from home that will make a difference to his school success? What information about the home will provide a better idea of how much success the child will achieve in school?"

This report continues an examination of these questions. It focuses primarily on the question of "What does the child bring with him from home that is related to whether his performance is above or below traditional expectation?". It also asks, "Are these factors related to the socio-economic status of his home?".

The report documents the findings of the examination of these factors. It provides an indication of the degree of importance which might be attached to the home environment when considering achievement.

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1 Crawford, Patricia and Eason, G. School achievement: a preliminary look at the effects of the home. Toronto: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto, Research Department, 1970 (#83).

PROCEDURE

Description of Population

The data on which this paper is based were collected from 518 pupils and their mothers. The pupils were a part of the basic population of 8,695 included in the Longitudinal Study of Achievement initiated in 1960-61. There are two reasons for the small number of pupils included in this paper:

(1) Although during the first five years of the Study data were collected from the entire sample of pupils available, in grade six, the Teacher Ratings were obtained only for those 721 pupils whose mothers had been interviewed during the previous year, i.e., 1967, when the pupils were in grade five.

(2) Of those 721 pupils, complete data including I.Q. scores, MAT scores, and grade three Teacher Ratings were available for only 518 pupils.

Description of Measures Used

The data collected from the mothers were obtained during a one-hour face-to-face interview in the spring of 1967. The interviews, conducted by an independent market research firm, were based on a 65 item questionnaire developed by the Research Department. A brief summary of the items included in each section follows.

Section A -- contained items concerning family background, i.e., number of siblings, age of parents, religious preference, parents' educational and occupational attainment; parents' aspirations and expectations for their child's educational and occupational achievement; and the number of rooms in the home and their use by the family.

Section B -- dealt with the frequency and nature of the parent's contact with the school; the accessibility and use of communication media, e.g. T.V., books and libraries, newspaper and magazines; and attitudes concerning equal opportunities for advanced education and jobs.

Section C -- included several questions which asked parents to rank procedures for managing their child and qualities which they felt were important for their child, e.g. neatness, happiness, punctuality, etc. Another set of items in this section asked about the age at which the parent considered the child to be able to perform certain activities on his own, i.e., the degree of independence training.

Section D -- included items related to the amount and source of the family's income.

Section E -- was completed by the interviewer who rated the type and quality of the family's dwelling and the surrounding area.

In the first report[2] on the parent interview data, eight items from the questionnaire, thought to be most pertinent to an educationally supportive environment, as well as the child's I.Q. score and an index of the family's socio-economic status, were included in a series of analyses to determine which of these variables would provide the best predictors of school achievement as measured by the Metropolitan Achievement Test and Teachers' Ratings. Crawford and Eason (1970) found that:

(1) Of the eight home environment variables included in the analyses, only two could be considered as "useful" predictors of school achievement, i.e., mother's anticipated education for her child and number of books in the home suitable for children.

(2) The child's I.Q. score provided a better prediction of his school achievement than either the home environment questions or the measure of socio-economic status.

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2 Crawford, Patricia and Eason, G. School achievement: a preliminary look at the effects of the home. Toronto: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto, Research Department, 1970 (#83).

(3) Socio-economic status did not explain a significant portion of the variability in either the Metropolitan Achievement Test scores or the Teacher Rating scores.

In the present report, 21 items (see Table 1) from the Parent Questionnaire were examined in terms of two criteria: the child's achievement status, i.e., whether the child could be classified as an under-, average-, or over-achiever, and the family's socio-economic status, i.e., low, middle or high. In those instances where preliminary inspection of the data or the analysis based on achievement status indicated that a given item would not show an effect when analyzed on the basis of SEI (socio-economic index), the item was not subjected to further analysis.

The data collected from each of the pupils included information and/or scores on the following:

(1) Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests (new edition -- Alpha Short Form) administered in grade two;

(2) Metropolitan Achievement Test administered in grade three;

(3) Discrepancy Score which provided an index of whether the pupil was an under-, average- or over-achiever;

(4) Teacher Rating Questionnaires completed by the classroom teachers in grade three and grade six;

(5) Children's Questionnaire administered in grade five.

The Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test and the Metropolitan Achievement Test are standardized tests which provide measures of intelligence and achievement, respectively.

The Discrepancy Score[3] was devised to measure the extent to which each pupil's actual achievements correspond to what it might be expected

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3 For a more detailed description of the derivation of this score see Schroder, Carole and Crawford, Patricia. School achievement as measured by teacher ratings and standardized achievement tests. Toronto: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto, Research Department, 1970 (#89).

TABLE 1

ITEMS FROM THE PARENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

Explanation of Symbols: ( ) analyzed on the basis of achievement status of child only, but not reported since the scores did not differentiate the three groups.

* analyzed on the basis of achievement status only. Scores reported.

** analyzed on the basis of the child's achievement status, and also on the basis of the socio-economic status of the parents. Where an item has been analyzed on the basis of both achievement status and socio-economic status, the graphs are presented within the same section of the results section.

* - I'd like you to tell me the names, ages, etc. of everyone in your household.

(- How many homes did you live in in the last six years?)

(- And how many homes did you live in in the six years before that?)

** - How far would you <u>like</u> (child's name) to go with his/her education?

** - Judging by your child's school record up until now, how far do you think he/she will really go?

** - The next question deals with occupation. You might not have a specific occupation in mind for (child's name), but what type of occupation would you like him/her to have? Here is a list of groupings of various occupations which might help you.

** - Judging by your child's work at school and his interests, now, what <u>type</u> of occupation do you think he is really likely to have?

** - How far would you have liked to go? (with her (mother's) education)

** - To what level did your husband go in school?

* - What is your husband's occupation?

** - Does (child's name) bring home school work to be done at home? How often?

* - Do you ever help (child's name) with school work? How often?

* - How do you feel your child does in school? above average
average
below average

** - How many children's books do you have in your house suitable for children from 8 to 12?

* - About how often does he/she go to the library?

* - How often do you read a book?

* - Do you regularly read a daily newspaper?

* - How many magazines do you read regularly, every month?

** - How much T.V. does (child's name) watch a day? Monday to Friday
Saturday and Sunday

* - Do you have any restrictions on T.V. watching by (child's name)? What sort of restrictions?

(- How far ahead in the future do you think about what you will be doing?)

(- What is the name of your child's teacher?)

(- How often have you talked to your child's teacher this school year, other than at Open House meetings?)

(- How many Open House meetings have you been to this year?)

** - Do you think all capable boys and girls have an equal opportunity to get a college education?

(- Do you feel management/supervisors are generally fair?)

* - Do you feel that people who work hard get ahead?

(- Do you feel that "who you are" usually makes more of a difference than "how good" you are in job promotion?)

his achievements should be. On the basis of this score, the pupils were categorized as either under-, average- or over-achievers. It is important to note that a special feature of the method used to derive the Discrepancy Score is that each of the achievement status groups, i.e., under-, average- and over-achievers, has the same average I.Q. score.

The Teacher Rating Questionnaires for grade three and grade six were developed by the Research Department. They consist of four subsections, i.e. Adjustment, Performance, Creativity and Prediction of School Success, each containing several items. The teacher is asked to rate each pupil on a five-point scale, i.e. 0, 2, 4, 6 or 8, indicating the extent to which the pupil displays the characteristic being rated.

The Children's Questionnaire, devised by the Research Department, consisted of 21 items concerning: the child's educational and occupational aspirations, the child's perceptions of his parent's aspirations for him, frequency of child bringing home school work and receiving help with it, the accessibility and use of communication media, e.g., T.V., books, and libraries, and attitudes about school.

The questionnaire was administered in June, 1967 to those 721 pupils whose mothers had completed the Parent Questionnaire. The questionnaire, administered at school by the classroom teacher, was designed to complement, supplement and confirm data obtained in the parent interviews.

Those items from the Children's Questionnaire (see Table 2) which are similar to the 21 items from the Parent Questionnaire are included in the analyses discussed in this report. The data from the Children's Questionnaire were examined in terms of only one criterion, the child's achievement status.

TABLE 2

ITEMS FROM THE CHILDREN'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Birthdate

How often do you take school work to do at home?

How often do your parents help you with your school work?

In your class you do -- better than most pupils,
about the same as most pupils,
poorer than most pupils.

Do you think teachers are fair to pupils most of the time?

Do you really like school? Why?

How much T.V. do you watch a day? Monday to Friday? Saturday and Sunday?

What sort of rules do your parents have for your T.V. watching?

How often do you read a book on your own that is not connected with your school work?

How often do you go to the library?

Do you think <u>your parents</u> want you to go to college?

Do <u>you</u> want to go to college?

What do you want to be when you grow up? Why?

What do you think your parents would like you to be when you grow up?

What kind of work does your father do?

RESULTS

Preliminary examination of the data from the Parent's and Children's Questionnaires indicated that the differences among the mean scores for each item were not large enough to be statistically significant. This was so for both the various achievement status groups and the various socio-economic status groups. Nonetheless, the trends evident in the data are sufficiently consistent to be of interest whether "statistically" significant or not. Accordingly, the data to be discussed are presented graphically.

To facilitate reading the results section, the following information is pointed out to the reader:

1. All replies to the items on the Parent Interview Questionnaire and the Children's Questionnaire were given a numerical code. A response indicating a high incidence of some activity was given a high score; if a low frequency of that activity was indicated, a low score was given. Similarly, a high score was given if a preference for a high status occupation or an advanced education was indicated.

2. There are three series of graphs presented in the results section: those presenting the relationship of the parent interview data to (1) their child's achievement status, (2) their own socio-economic status, and (3) the relationship of the child's questionnaire data to the child's achievement status.

3. In each section of the results, e.g., Education, graphs from each of the sources listed above may be discussed. When examining the graphs, the reader should remember that the number of people represented by each data point will depend upon the source of the data. The number of

boys and girls represented in each of the achievement status and socio-economic status groups is presented in Table 3.

4. On each graph, a (P) or a (C) is placed after the figure caption to indicate whether the data originate from the Parent's or the Children's Questionnaire.

5. Mean scores based on girls' data or girls' mothers' data are indicated by the solid circles. The corresponding scores for boys are given by open circles.

TABLE 3

THE NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS REPRESENTED IN EACH OF THE ACHIEVEMENT STATUS AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS GROUPS

	Socio-Economic Index				Achievement Status		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female
Low	346:	171	175	Low	137:	78	59
Middle	120:	63	57	Average	244:	120	124
High	52:	25	27	High	137:	61	76
TOTAL	518	259	259	TOTAL	518	259	259

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ACHIEVEMENT MEASURES AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

I.Q. Scores and Socio-Economic Status

The average I.Q. scores, for each of the three socio-economic status groups are given in Table 4. There is a slight tendency for pupils from a high socio-economic status background to have slightly higher average I.Q. scores.

Teacher Ratings and Socio-Economic Status

Mean scores were calculated for each subsection of both the grade three and the grade six Teacher Rating Questionnaires for each of the three socio-economic status groups (see Table 5). Examination of Table 5 indicates that the high socio-economic status group scored consistently higher than either the low or the middle SEI groups on each of the subsections. These scores are also presented graphically in Figures 1 to 8, Appendix A.

Metropolitan Achievement Test Scores and Socio-Economic Status

Mean scores were calculated for each of the three socio-economic status groups on each of the eight subtests of the MAT used in the Study of Achievement (see Table 6). The high SES group obtained higher average scores on each of the eight subtests than either the low or the middle SES groups. The scores for the latter two groups were almost identical on each of the subtests. The scores for each subtest are presented graphically in Figures 9 to 16, Appendix A.

A relationship between socio-economic status and school achievement has been amply documented by a number of researchers. For example, Coleman

TABLE 4

MEAN I.Q. SCORES FOR EACH SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUP

SEI	I.Q.	N
Low	102.08	346
Middle	106.32	120
High	111.41	52

TABLE 5

MEAN TEACHER RATING SCORES FOR EACH SUBSECTION
AND THE TOTAL SCORE CALCULATED FOR EACH SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUP
FOR GRADES THREE AND SIX, RESPECTIVELY

Grade	SEI	Adjustment	Performance	Creativity	Prediction	Total
3	Low	5.04	4.37	4.04	3.81	4.46
	Middle	4.72	4.27	4.23	4.04	4.38
	High	5.45	5.04	4.63	5.05	5.07
6	Low	4.86	4.29	3.99	4.05	4.41
	Middle	4.38	3.91	3.96	3.66	4.05
	High	5.12	4.89	4.55	5.29	4.94

TABLE 6

MEAN SCORES ON EACH SUBSECTION OF THE GRADE THREE MAT
FOR EACH OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS

Socio-Economic Index	Word Knowledge	Word Discrimination	Reading	Spelling	Language "A"	Language "B"	Arithmetic Computation	Arithmetic Problem Solving
Low	47.77	48.55	46.74	53.58	51.26	49.60	53.60	50.12
Middle	47.46	48.45	46.33	52.06	52.86	49.01	50.82	49.34
High	54.52	54.10	52.76	58.77	58.24	54.95	56.67	56.20

(1968), working with grade eleven and twelve boys, and Choppin (1968), in a cross-cultural study employing grade seven pupils, noted that school achievement increased with the socio-economic status of the father. Flatman (1966) found the same result for grade one pupils in Alberta. These studies yield slightly different results from the Study of Achievement in that the Study of Achievement data show an effect of SEI only at the high end of the SEI scale.

Discrepancy Scores[4] and Socio-Economic Status

Mean Discrepancy Scores were calculated for each of the three socio-economic status groups (see Figure 17). Pupils from the high SEI group were more likely to be over-achievers than were those from the middle and low SEI groups. The mean Discrepancy Scores for the latter two groups indicate that, on the <u>average</u>, the pupils in these groups tended to be average-achievers. The reader should be cautioned that these statements are based on average scores and do not mean that <u>all</u> high SEI pupils are over-achievers or that <u>all</u> middle and low SEI pupils are average-achievers.

The above finding is consistent with the results of a study by Lewis (1941) who noted that over-achievers tended to come from higher socio-economic backgrounds than did under-achievers.

In summary, each of the achievement measures, i.e. MAT scores, Teacher Ratings and Discrepancy Scores, is related to SEI in a similar way: on the average, low and middle SEI pupils obtain similar scores, while high SEI pupils tend to score higher than both of these groups.

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4 The reader will recall that a Discrepancy Score provides an indication of whether a pupil may be classified as an under-, average-, or over-achiever. For the remainder of this report, this score will be used to refer to the pupil's "achievement status."

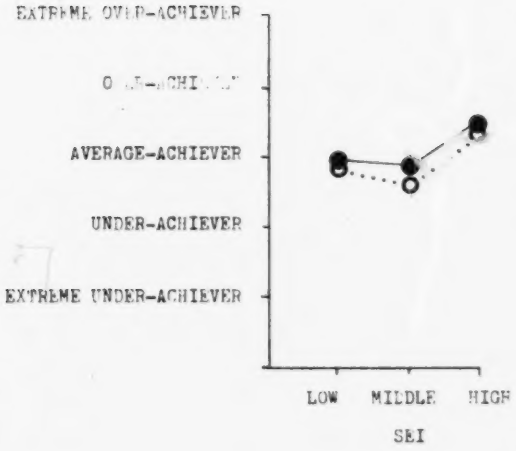

FIG. 17. ACHIEVEMENT STATUS ACCORDING TO SEI. (P)

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS AND ACHIEVEMENT STATUS

Family Size and Achievement Status

Does the number of children in the family or the number of people comprising the family, including any grandparents, etc., affect a pupil's school achievement? As seen in Figures 18 and 19 there is a slight tendency for over-achievers to come from smaller families and have fewer brothers and sisters than do average-achievers, who in turn come from smaller families and have fewer siblings than under-achievers.

Lewis (1941) also found that over-achievers come from slightly smaller families than do under-achievers. The findings of Rehberg and Westby (1967) provide a tentative explanation for such results. They noted that in large families the amount of parental educational encouragement given was less than in small families. In addition, the effectiveness of any given amount of educational encouragement decreased as family size increased. Why these effects obtained was not ascertained by Rehberg and Westby.

Age of Pupil and Achievement Status

Over-achievers as a group were approximately two months older than average-achievers, who in turn were about one month older than under-achievers (Figure 20). Although others have found under-achievers to be the older pupils (e.g., Lewis, 1941), McGillivray (1963), working with Toronto high school students, found results consistent with those of the Study of Achievement. In fact, he found that under-achievers were six months younger than over-achievers as compared to the three month difference shown in Figure 20.

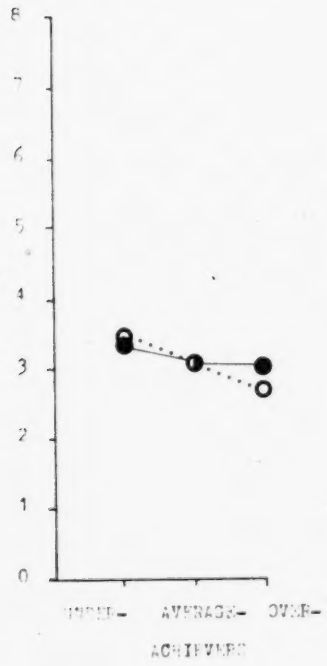

FIG. 18. NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY. (P)

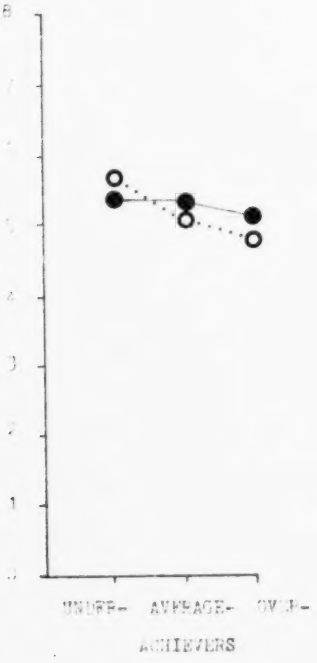

FIG. 19. NUMBER OF PEOPLE LIVING IN THE HOME. (P)

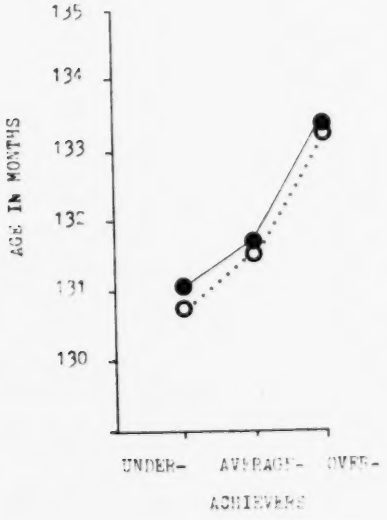

FIG. 20. AGE (IN MONTHS) OF THE THREE ACHIEVEMENT GROUPS. (C)

EDUCATION

Educational Aspirations and Expectations and Achievement Status

Parents' views on how much education they would like (i.e. aspirations) their child to obtain and on how much education they think he actually will obtain, (i.e. expectations) are summarized in Figures 21 and 22 respectively. Higher educational aspirations and expectations are associated with increasing achievement status. In addition, parents have higher aspirations and expectations for boys than for girls. This difference on the basis of sex probably reflects the general expectation in our society that boys, as the primary supporters of households, will require more education in order to successfully fulfill this role.

Generally, parents of under-, average-, and over-achievers would like their children to receive at least some post-high school training (Figure 21), although they anticipate (Figure 22) that their child's final level of formal education will be slightly less than they would like it to be.

Parents of over-achieving boys would like to see their sons graduate from college and perhaps do some post-graduate work. Over-achieving daughters on the other hand, should receive some post-high school training and perhaps graduate from college. The aspirations of parents of over-achievers of both sexes are not markedly different from their expectations. It would seem then that hard-working pupils give their parents the impression that they are capable of high academic achievements and that they will in fact come very close to fulfilling their potential.

Average-achieving boys have parents who would like to see them graduate from college, but who expect that their sons will receive somewhat less education. Parents of average-achieving girls would like them to receive

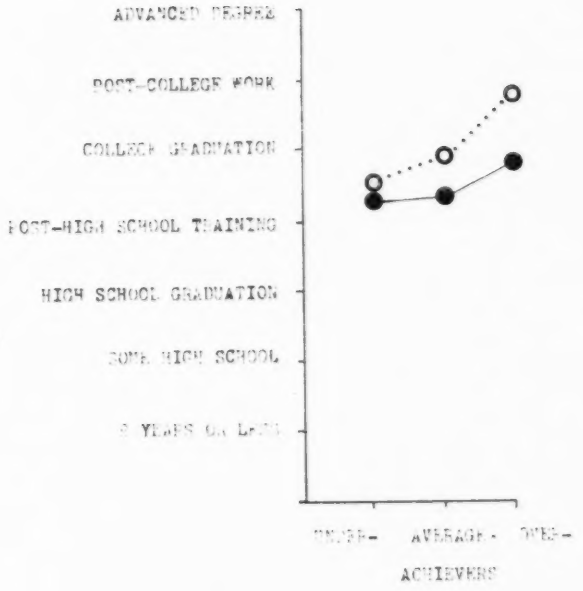

FIG. 21. EDUCATION WANTED FOR CHILD. (2)

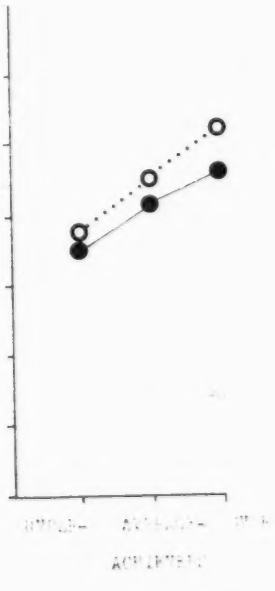

FIG. 22. EDUCATION ANTICIPATED FOR CHILD. (3)

some form of post-high school training, and again, expect that they will not go as far as they would like them to. Again the difference between aspirations and expectations is minimal.

The difference between parental educational aspirations and expectations is greatest in the case of both boys and girls who are under-achievers. It should also be noted in this instance that the educational aspirations and expectations for boys are very similar to those for girls. The parents of under-achievers would like their children to receive some post-high school training, but are inclined to think that their children will terminate their education at the end of high school. In view of their children's current level of achievement, the expectations of these parents seem to be relatively realistic.

The finding that parents of over-achievers want and expect that their children will receive a high level of education is consistent with the findings of Rankin (1967): parents of over-achievers in grades three and four wanted their children to go to college.

Educational Aspirations and Expectations and Socio-Economic Status

Do parents from different socio-economic backgrounds have different aspirations and expectations for their child's educational attainment? Figure 23 shows that parents' aspirations increase as socio-economic status increases; again, higher educational levels are desired for boys than for girls. However, parents anticipate (Figure 24) that the child will not receive as much education as they desire, although they expect that their children will come close to their aspirations. Again, girls receive lower ratings than boys.

The reader will note that, as was the case for the relationship between the various achievement measures and socio-economic status, the average

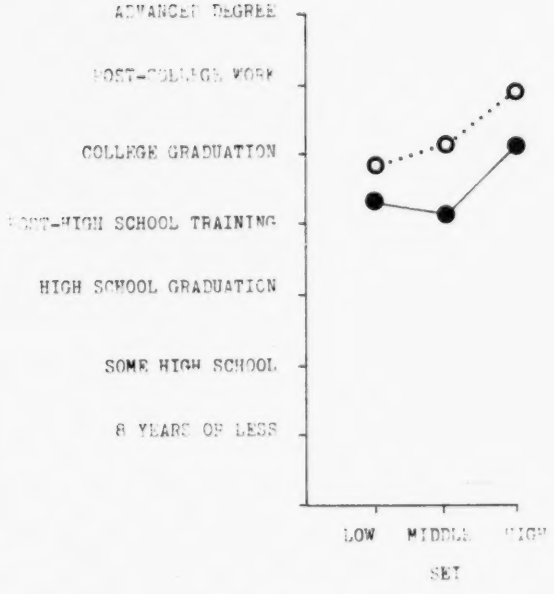

FIG. 23. EDUCATION WANTED FOR CHILD. (P)

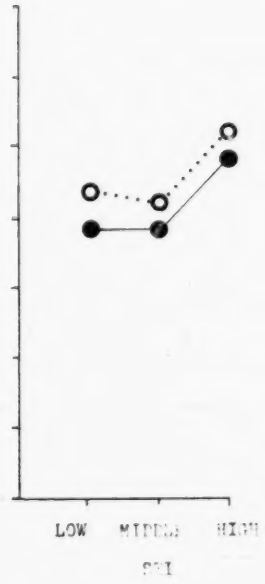

FIG. 24. EDUCATION ANTICIPATED FOR CHILD. (P)

scores for the low and middle SEI groups are quite similar, while those for the high SEI group are considerably higher.

The pattern of the relationship between SEI and mothers' educational aspirations and expectations bears some similarities to the relationship between achievement status and educational aspirations and expectations: the educational levels nominated increase with either increasing achievement status or increasing socio-economic status.

Although the majority of studies have involved adolescents, generally it has been found that parents' educational aspirations and expectations for their children are related to their socio-economic status. Coleman (1968) found this to be the case for parents of boys in grades eleven and twelve, while Rehberg and Westby (1967) noted that the amount of encouragement to continue their education given teen-age boys by their parents was a direct function of the father's socio-economic status. The effect of SEI on the educational atmosphere of the pupil's home is not entirely due to the fact that the pupils' school achievements are directly related to their socio-economic status. Harrison (1969) reports that even when the effect of school achievement is controlled for, higher SEI students want more education than do lower SEI students.

Parents' Education and Achievement Status

Figure 25 indicates that there is little difference among the mothers of under-, average-, and over-achievers in the level of education attained: on the average, they have had some high school experience. In terms of fathers' education (Figure 27), however, there is a slight tendency for the fathers of over-achievers to have received more education than the fathers of under-achievers.

When the mothers were asked what level of education they would like to have achieved, their responses (Figure 26) indicated a high degree

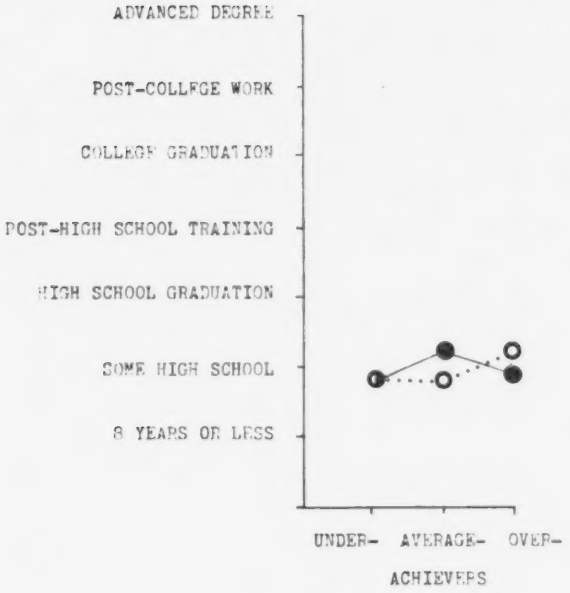

FIG. 25. MOTHER'S EDUCATION. (P)

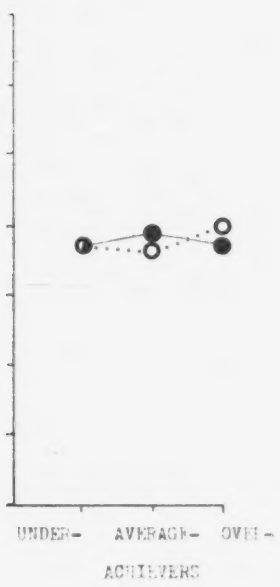

FIG. 26. MOTHER'S DESIRED EDUCATION. (P)

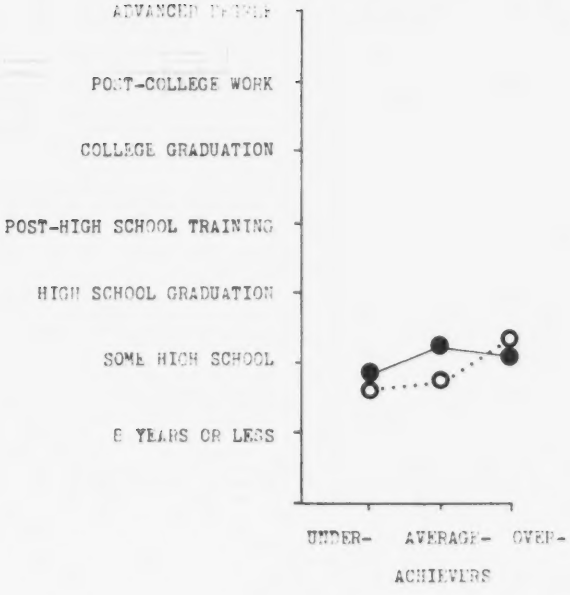

FIG. 27. FATHER'S EDUCATION. (P)

of agreement: on the average, mothers of under-, average-, or over-achievers would like to have received some post-high school training. Their aspirations are somewhat higher than their actual level of education.

A comparison of Figure 26 and Figure 22 indicates that the mothers of under- and average-achieving girls think that their daughters' actual level of education will be approximately what they themselves would like to have achieved; mothers of over-achievers on the other hand, think that their daughters will attain a higher level of education than they themselves would like to have received. Mothers, whose sons are categorized as under-achievers, think that their sons will obtain as much education as they themselves would like to have attained, whereas mothers whose sons are average- or over-achievers believe their sons will go farther in school than they (i.e., the mothers) would like to have gone. In other words, the mothers anticipate that their sons' actual achievement will exceed what they would have liked for themselves.

Parents' Education and Socio-Economic Status

In this study, parents' education varies directly with socio-economic status because of the nature of the index of socio-economic status. The index is a combination of two pieces of information, father's income and father's education.[5] Those people having the largest income and the most education were most likely to have the largest SEI score and were most likely to be designated as coming from a high socio-economic status background. Therefore mothers (Figure 28) and fathers (Figure 30) designated as being in the high SEI group have more education than those parents who have low socio-economic status.

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5 For a more detailed account of the derivation of this measure, see Eason, G. and Crawford, Patricia. The Measurement of Socio-Economic Status: A Technical Note. Toronto: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto, Research Department, 1969 (#63).

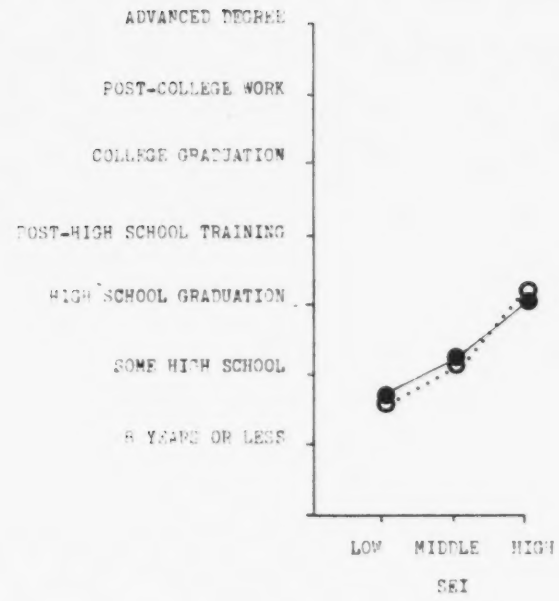

FIG. 28. MOTHER'S ACTUAL EDUCATION. (F)

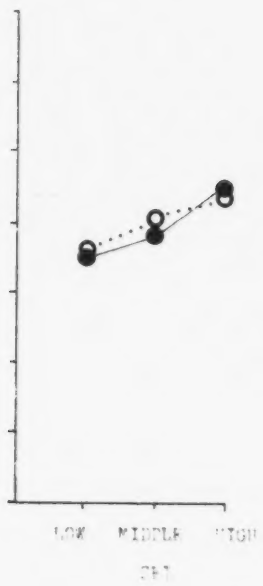

FIG. 29. MOTHER'S EXPECTED EDUCATION. (F)

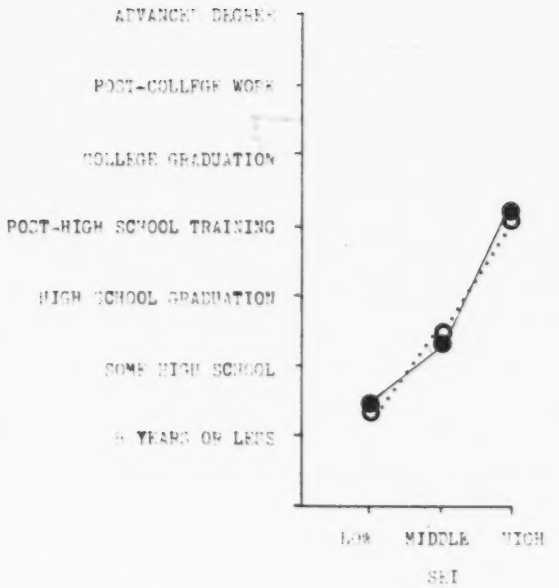

FIG. 30. FATHER'S ACTUAL EDUCATION. (F)

It should be noted that mothers and fathers in each of the low and middle SEI groups have approximately the same level of education, while high SEI fathers tend to have more education than high SEI mothers.

On the average, mothers from each SEI group would like to have received more education than they actually did (Figure 29). High SEI mothers would like to have the same level of education, on the average, as high SEI fathers actually have. Low and middle SEI mothers would like more education than fathers at those levels now have. They would like at least some post-high school training, or, for the middle SEI group, college graduation.

Opinion of Child's Schoolwork and Achievement Status

Are parents' opinions of the quality of their children's school work in accord with the child's actual performance? To a certain extent they are not (Figure 31). Because all groups are reported by their parents as performing at an average or higher level, the statements can be viewed as overestimates since these are pupils who were performing below average.

Pupils' Perceptions of Their Class Standing and Achievement Status

Pupils' own opinions of their class standing (Figure 32) were less closely related to their achievement status than were their parents' opinions of their school work (Figure 31). The boys and girls in each group essentially rated themselves as performing at an average level.

Pupils' Desires For a College Education and Achievement Status

Except in the case of over-achieving girls and under-achieving boys, some of whom expressed some doubts, most pupils wanted to go to college (Figure 33). In addition, they believed that their parents would like them

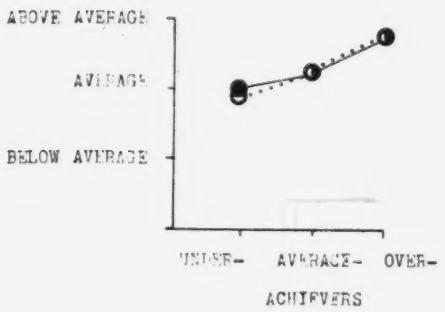

FIG. 31. PARENT'S OPINION OF THE CHILD'S SCHOOLWORK. (P)

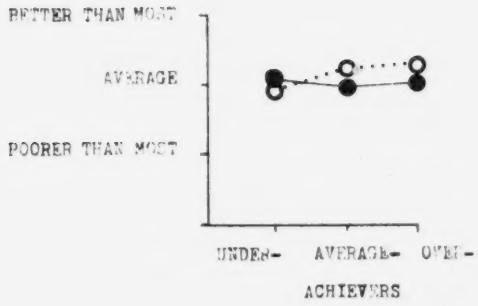

FIG. 32. THE CHILD'S REPORT OF WHERE HE STANDS RELATIVE TO HIS CLASSMATES. (C)

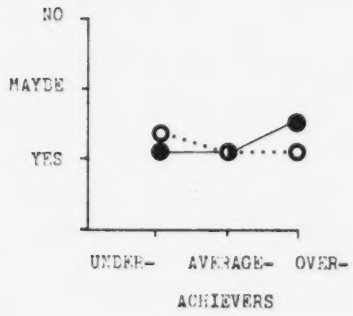

FIG. 33. WHETHER OR NOT THE CHILD WANTS TO GO TO COLLEGE. (C)

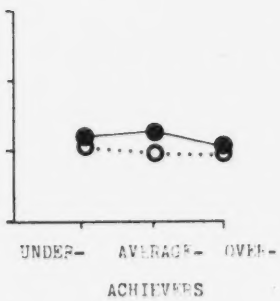

FIG. 34. WHETHER OR NOT THE CHILD THINKS HIS PARENTS WANT HIM TO GO TO COLLEGE. (C)

to go to college (Figure 34). Boys were a little more certain than girls that their parents would like them to do so.

That there are not distinct differences among the three achievement groups is somewhat surprising since such differences have been found by other researchers. Kurtz and Swenson (1951), Farquhar (1963), Harrison (1969), and Walberg (1969) found that students who showed a high level of academic competence wanted more education than did their less successful colleagues. However, all of these studies but one, Kurtz and Swenson (1951), were based on data obtained from high school students. Young pupils, as in the Study of Achievement, may simply have given the socially acceptable response when asked whether they wanted to go to college. Another possibility is that the pupils were simply expressing a desire for further education, but, not having sufficient information to distinguish the many forms this additional schooling could take, merely indicated that they "wanted to go to college."

OCCUPATION

Occupational Aspirations and Expectations and Achievement Status

Parents' views on the type of occupation they would like (i.e. aspirations) their children to have, and what occupation they expect (i.e. expectations) that their children actually will have are shown in Figures 35 and 36, respectively.

It is quite evident that parents have lower aspirations and expectations for their daughters' as opposed to their sons' future occupations. It will be recalled that parents also had lower aspirations and expectations concerning girls' as opposed to boys' educational attainment.

There is a very slight tendency for parents of both under- and over-achieving boys to want a higher occupation than they think the boys will attain. Most parents envisage that their children will attain at least the occupational status of teachers or store managers, although parents of over-achieving boys expect their sons to attain high managerial or professional status (see Figure 36). These occupational expectations, although quite high, are in fairly close accord with the parents' educational expectations for their children. That is, the education that the parents think their children will receive meets the requirements of the occupations that they expect their children will have. However, such uniformly high aspirations and expectations for their child's future educational and occupational attainment assure some disappointments. To the extent that it is unlikely that <u>all</u> students will graduate from high school or college, or that <u>none</u> of the children in this sample will find employment as tradesmen,

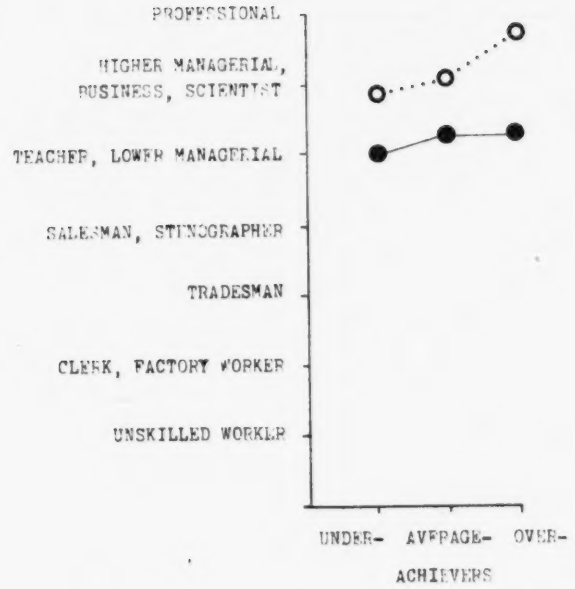

FIG. 35. OCCUPATION WANTED FOR CHILD. (P)

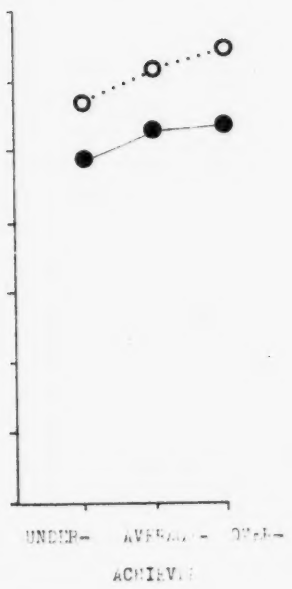

FIG. 36. OCCUPATION ANTICIPATED FOR CHILD. (P)

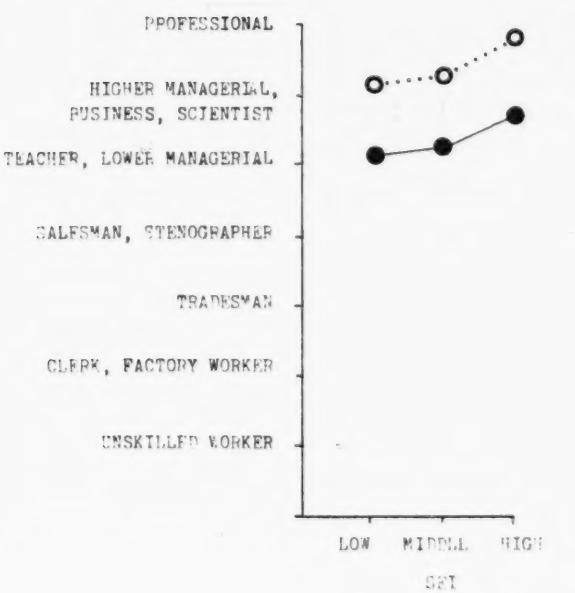

FIG. 37. OCCUPATION WANTED FOR CHILD. ( )

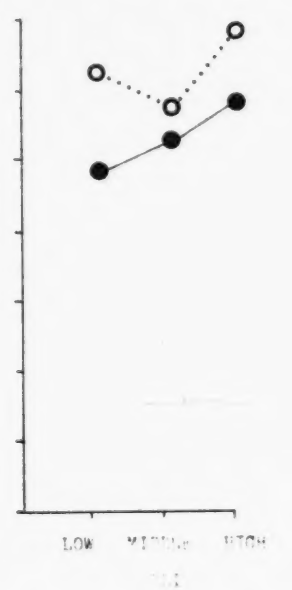

FIG. 38. OCCUPATION ANTICIPATED FOR CHILD. ( )

in factories, as sales personnel and stenographers, some parents hold expectations which are unrealistic in terms of a number of factors, e.g., their child's ability and/or interests, the cost of higher education, the number of spaces available in universities and colleges, the number of jobs available for highly trained people. The reader should remember, of course, that the statements regarding parents' expectations are based on average scores, and therefore, not all parents had such high expectations, although there were few that did not.

Occupational Aspirations and Expectations and Socio-Economic Status

The occupational level desired and anticipated by parents for their children appears to be a function of the parents' socio-economic status (Figures 37 and 38). High SEI parents have higher aspirations and expectations for both their boys and their girls than do the low SEI parents. Within each SEI group, with one exception, there is no difference between the parents' aspirations and expectations for their child's future occupation. In the case of the middle SEI boys, however, the occupation their mothers think they will attain is lower than the occupation they would like them to attain. Again, mothers' aspirations and expectations are lower for girls than for boys.

These findings are consistent with those of Coleman (1968) in which it was noted that parents of higher socio-economic status held higher occupational aspirations for their children.

Father's Occupation and Achievement Status

Children who were over-achievers had fathers who had slightly higher status occupations than children who were average- or under-achievers (Figure 39). Children's reports of their fathers' occupations were for all purposes identical to the mothers' reports.

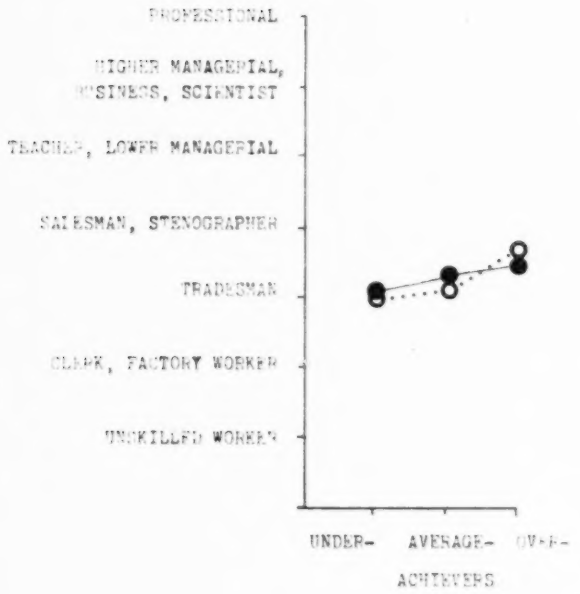

FIG. 39. FATHER'S OCCUPATION, AS REPORTED BY CHILD. (C)

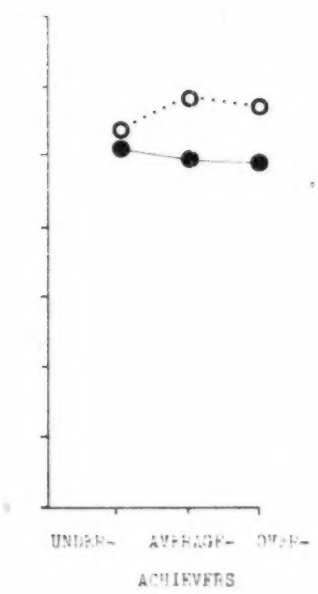

FIG. 4. THE OCCUPATION THE CHILD THINKS HIS PARENTS WOULD LIKE HIM TO HAVE. (C)

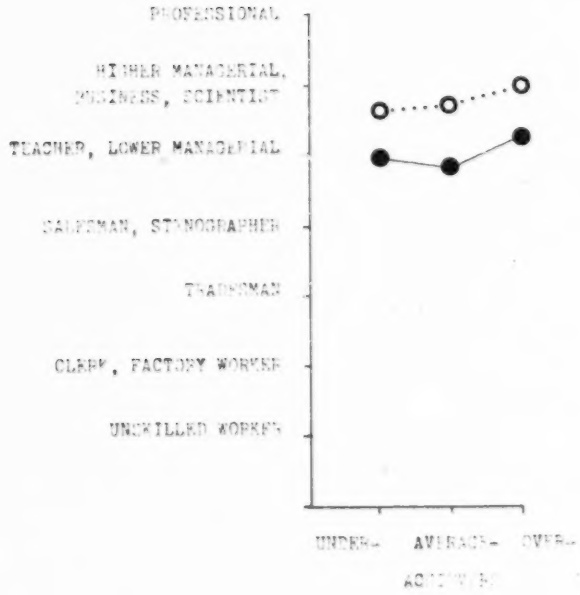

FIG. 41. CHILD'S DESIRED OCCUPATION. (C)

Pupils' Perceptions of Parent's Desired Occupation

The pupils were asked to indicate what occupation they thought their parents would like them to have (Figure 40). Girls, whether under-, average-, or over-achievers, thought their parents would like them to attain an occupational level equivalent to that of teachers. In the case of boys, under-achievers felt that their parents would like them to be something a little higher in occupational status than teachers, while average- and over-achievers felt their parents would like them to attain a position comparable to those of high managerial posts or scientists. Thus boys perceived their parents as wanting slightly higher status occupations for them than did girls. In addition, these perceptions were related to boys' achievement status, but not to the girls'.

Comparing Figures 39 and 40, it is apparent that the child's perceptions of what his parents would like him to be are consistently higher than the occupation which the child thinks his father already has.

To determine the degree of agreement between the parents' statement of the occupation they want for their child and the child's perception of his parents' aspirations, Figure 36 was compared with Figure 40. Boys, whether under-, average-, or over-achievers consistently underestimated their parents' aspirations. In the case of girls, under-achievers agreed with their parents, while average- and over-achievers felt the occupation their parents wanted for them was slightly lower than the parents themselves indicated.

Child's Desired Occupation and Achievement Status

The occupations that the pupils stated they would like (Figure 41) are similar in status to the ones they thought their parents would like them

to have (see Figure 40). The occupational level desired by boys was slightly related to their achievement status. Under- and average-achieving girls desired the same occupational level, while over-achieving girls expressed a wish for a slightly higher occupation than that of the other two groups of girls. The over-achieving girls also wanted a higher occupation than they thought their parents wanted for them. It is noteworthy that the highest average occupational category aimed at by the girls is still lower than the lowest average category desired by the boys.

That occupational aspirations are related to the extent of the pupil's school success is further confirmed in a study by Harrison (1969). Grade 10 students who were doing well in school reported wanting better jobs than did students who were not as successful: this effect held for each socio-economic level. In addition, Harrison found that students from higher socio-economic homes wanted higher status occupations independent of how well they were doing in school. However, he did not find any difference between boys and girls in their occupational aspirations. The differences found in this study may be due to the fact that the students were several years younger than those who participated in Harrison's study.

Reasons For Occupation Preference and Achievement Status

Pupils' responses to the question, "Why do you want to be a (occupation selected above)?" were coded into five categories as follows: no reason; pressure from others (e.g., "My parents want me to be a doctor." etc.); reasons extrinsic to the occupation (e.g., "I want to be a doctor to make a lot of money."); model of others (e.g., "I want to be a doctor because my father is one."); reasons intrinsic to the occupation (e.g., "I want to be a doctor so I can help sick people."). Each achievement status group, under-, average- and over-achievers was divided into males and females, thus

forming six groups. For each of these groups, the per cent of times each type of reason for choice of occupation was nominated was calculated. These figures are shown in Table 7. It is evident that "model of others" and "influence of others" were nominated infrequently. In addition "no reason" was given with a low frequency that further decreased as achievement status increased. Boys gave extrinsic reasons more often than did girls in all achievement status groups, approximately 25 per cent for boys and 17 per cent for girls. Intrinsic reasons were given most often with girls giving this type of reason more often than boys. The frequency with which intrinsic reasons were given also increased with achievement status.

On the whole then, most boys and girls indicated that their reasons for choosing a given occupation were related to the activities and necessary consequences of that occupation. The second most frequently given reason related to incidental benefits associated with a given occupation.

The fact that boys were more interested in an occupation for its extrinsic benefits, e.g., salary, than were girls is consistent with the fact that males, as supporters of households, will often require a larger income. Because this pressure is not placed upon girls, they are able to choose occupations for their interest, not so much for their associated salary.

TABLE 7

PER CENT OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN EACH ACHIEVEMENT CATEGORY INDICATING EACH TYPE OF REASON FOR CHOOSING A GIVEN OCCUPATION

Achievement Status	Type of Reason				
	No Reason	Influence Of Others	Extrinsic Reasons	Model of Others	Intrinsic Reasons
Under-achievers					
Male	12	0	28	8	53
Female	9	0	19	6	66
Average-achievers					
Male	8	2	25	6	60
Female	3	0	17	4	76
Over-achievers					
Male	3	3	25	2	66
Female	2	2	17	3	77

AFTER SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

Frequency With Which the Pupil Does Homework and Achievement Status

The frequency with which pupils are reported by their mothers as doing homework (Figure 42) varies with the achievement group that they are in, and with the sex of the child. Girls who are over-achievers do homework more often than girls who are under- or average-achievers. On the other hand, boys who are average- or over-achievers do about the same amount of homework, but more than boys who are under-achievers. Boys and girls who are average-achievers do the same amount of homework. In the under- and over-achiever groups, girls do more homework on the average than boys.

Frequency With Which Mothers Help With Homework and Achievement Status

The frequency with which mothers help their child with their homework is virtually the same for all achievement groups, and for both boys and girls, namely about once or twice a month (Figure 43). In terms of the frequency with which the pupil does homework, this works out to approximately one-quarter of the time for under-achieving boys and approximately one-eighth of the time for over-achieving girls.

Over- and average-achievers thus appear to be more willing and/or more capable of working on their school work by themselves since their mothers report that they do homework more often but get no more help than do under-achievers.

Frequency With Which Child Does Homework and Achievement Status (Child's Report)

Boys report doing homework less frequently than do girls (Figure 44). Girls average 1 to 2 nights a week for under-, average-, and over-achievers.

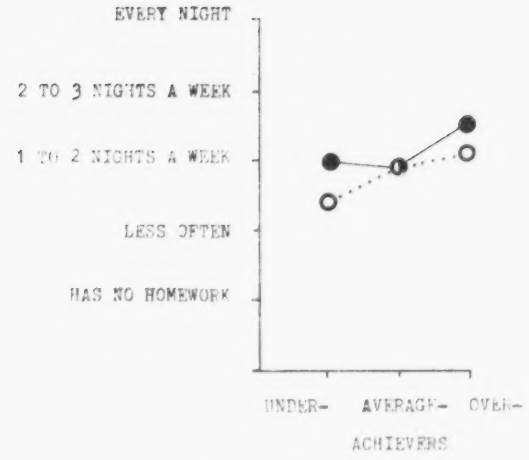

FIG. 42. FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE CHILD DOES HOMEWORK. (F)

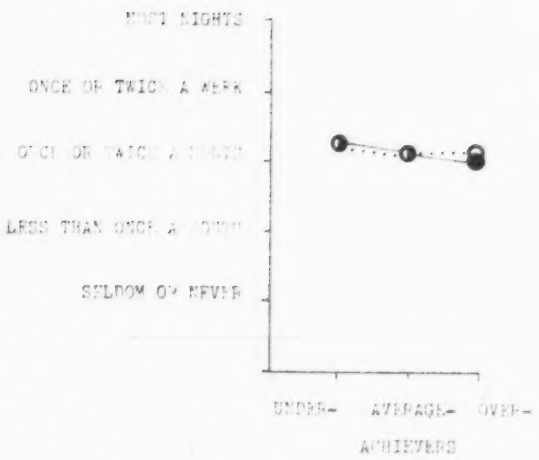

FIG. 43. FREQUENCY WITH WHICH PARENTS HELP WITH HOMEWORK. (F)

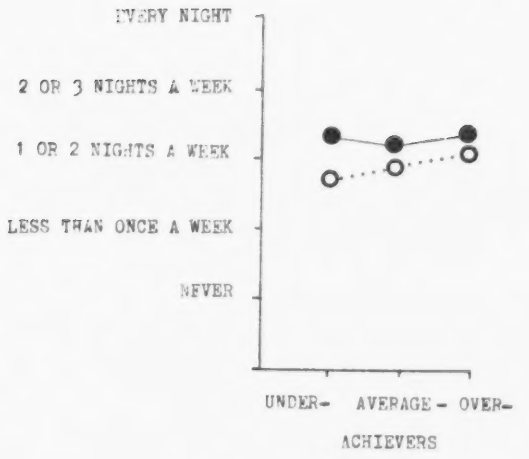

FIG. 44. FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE CHILD DOES HOMEWORK. (C)

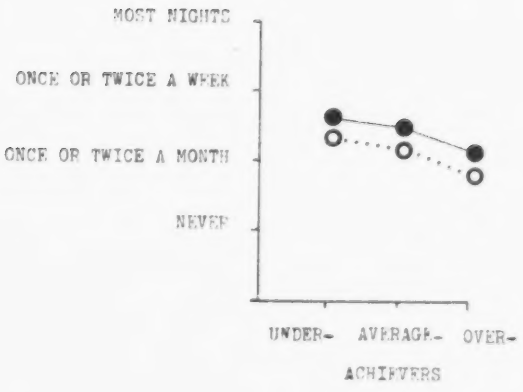

FIG. 45. FREQUENCY WITH WHICH PARENTS HELP WITH HOMEWORK. (C)

Male under-achievers do homework less often than do male average-achievers who in turn do slightly less homework than male over-achievers. A comparison of Figures 44 and 42 indicates that parents and children are in fairly close agreement in their estimates of how often the child does homework.

Frequency With Which the Child Reports Receiving Help With Homework and Achievement Status

Boys report receiving less help with their homework than do girls (Figure 45). Over-achievers, both boys and girls, tend to receive less help than average-achievers, who receive less help than under-achievers. Although the boys, whether under-, average-, or over-achievers, tend to agree with their mothers in regard to how often they receive help with their homework (see Figures 45 and 43), under- and average-achieving girls report receiving help more often than their mothers report giving help.

Frequency With Which the Pupil Does Homework and Socio-Economic Status

The frequency with which homework is done varies with SEI (Figure 46) in the same manner as achievement status varies with SEI (Figure 17): low and middle SEI pupils do homework 1 or 2 nights a week. High SEI pupils do slightly more, close to 2 or 3 nights a week.

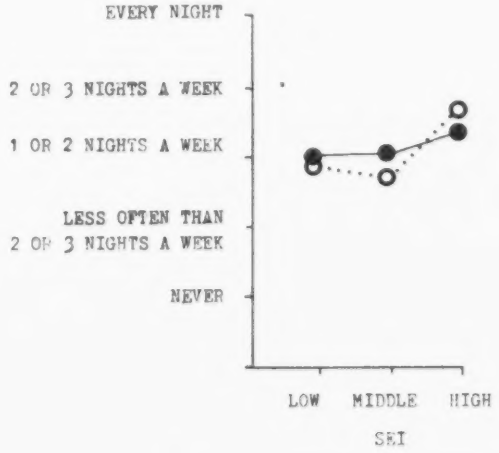

FIG. 46. FREQUENCY WITH WHICH CHILD DOES HOMEWORK. (P)

USE OF MEDIA

Opportunities For Reading and Achievement Status (Mother's Report)

A pupil who can read well and who likes reading can be expected to be more successful in his schoolwork than the poor reader. The questions in the parent interviews directed at the child's reading habits were concerned with the number of books in the home suitable for children and the frequency of the child's visits to the public library. Responses to these questions are shown in Figures 47 and 48 respectively. On the average, girls have between 10 and 20 books at home, over-achieving boys have slightly more, while under- and average-achieving boys have fewer books at home than do girls.

Mothers report no differences between boys and girls regarding the frequency of their library visits: both male and female over-achievers visit the library more often than under-achievers. Over-achievers average one visit to the library between once a month and once every two weeks.

Frequency of Library Visits and Achievement Status (Child's Report)

Boys report reading books not connected with their school work more often than do girls, (Figure 49), although the overall frequency for both boys and girls is quite low: once a month is the highest average. Under-achieving boys report reading unrelated books more often than all other groups.

Boys report visiting the library more often than do girls, i.e. slightly less than once every two weeks as opposed to once a month for girls. Under- and average-achieving boys and girls report making more visits to the library than do their over-achieving colleagues.

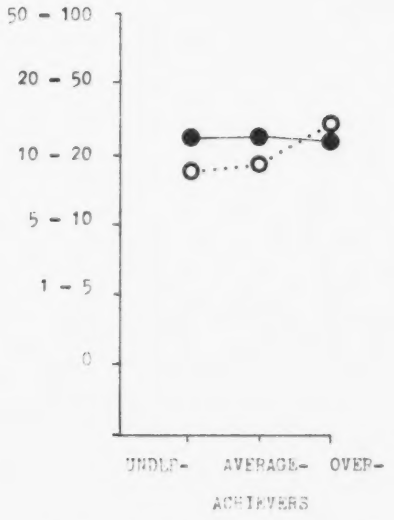

FIG. 47. THE NUMBER OF BOOKS IN THE HOME THAT ARE SUITABLE FOR CHILDREN. (P)

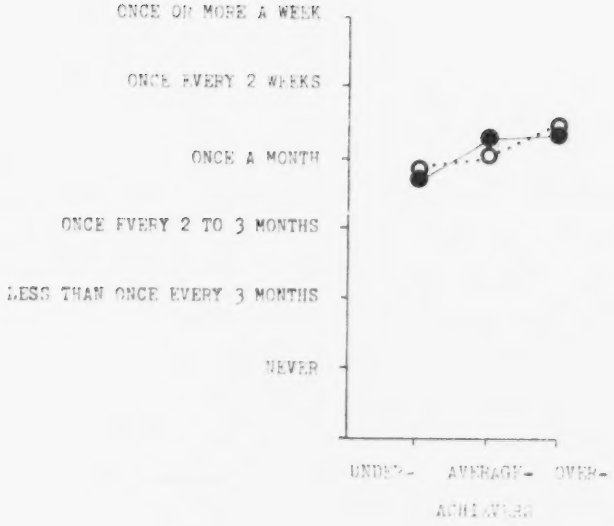

FIG. 48. FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE CHILD GOES TO THE LIBRARY. (P)

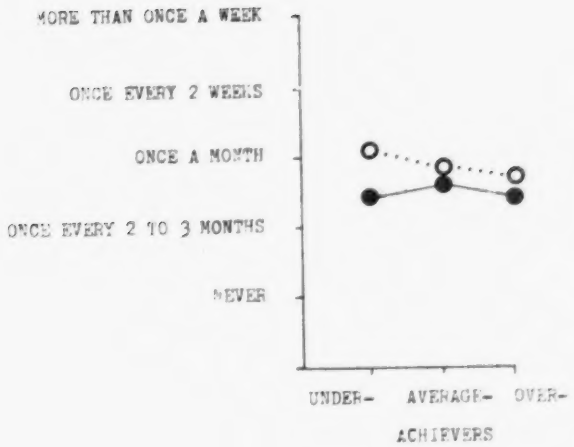

FIG. 49. THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE CHILD READS BOOKS THAT ARE NOT PART OF HIS SCHOOL-WORK. (C)

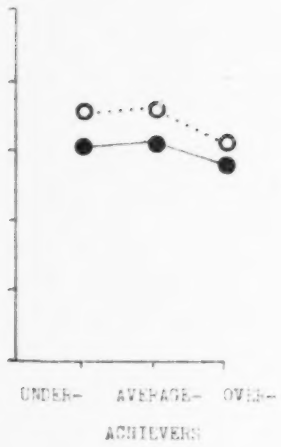

FIG. 50. THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE CHILD VISITS THE PUBLIC LIBRARY. (C)

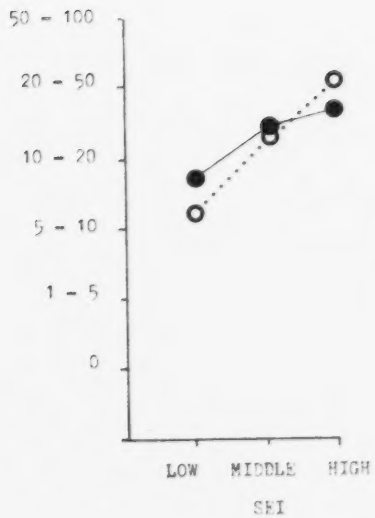

FIG. 51. NUMBER OF BOOKS IN THE HOME SUITABLE FOR CHILDREN. (P)

Comparing the parents' and pupils' reports of the frequency with which the child visits the library (Figures 48 and 50), it becomes apparent that parents think their children go to the library less often than the children report going. In addition, boys and girls differ in their reports as to how often they visit the library, although their parents do not see any difference between boys and girls in frequency of library visits.

Number of Books in the Home Suitable For Children and Socio-Economic Status

The number of books in the home suitable for children shows a strong relationship with SEI (Figure 51). Low SEI homes have from 10 to 20, middle SEI from 20 to 50 and high SEI have 50 or more books for children. Comparing Figure 51 with Figure 47, it is apparent that number of books in the home suitable for children is more clearly related to the child's socio-economic status than to his achievement status.

Mother's Reading Habits and Achievement Status

Are the mother's reading habits related to the child's achievement status? Number of magazines the mother reads regularly (Figure 52) and whether the mother reads the newspaper regularly (Figure 53) do not vary with the achievement status of the child. The mothers were also asked how many books they read. The average reply was 2 to 4 a month for all groups.

Amount of T.V. Viewing and Achievement Status

The amount of time spent in watching television does not vary to any great extent among under-, average-, and over-achievers on weekdays (Figure 54), or on weekends (Figure 55); nor is there any great difference

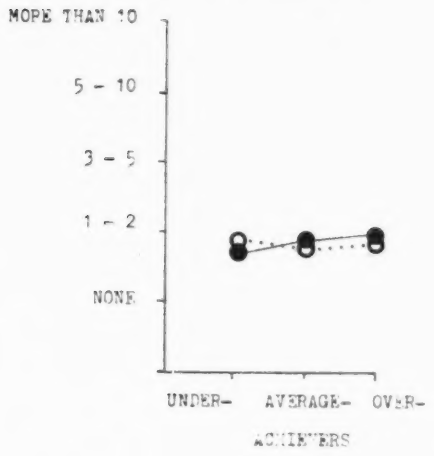

FIG. 52. NUMBER OF MAGAZINES THE MOTHER READS REGULARLY. (P)

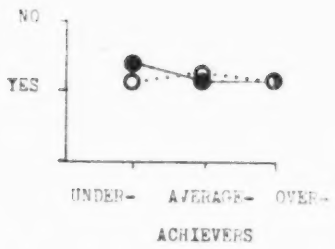

FIG. 53. DOES THE MOTHER READ A NEWSPAPER REGULARLY? (P)

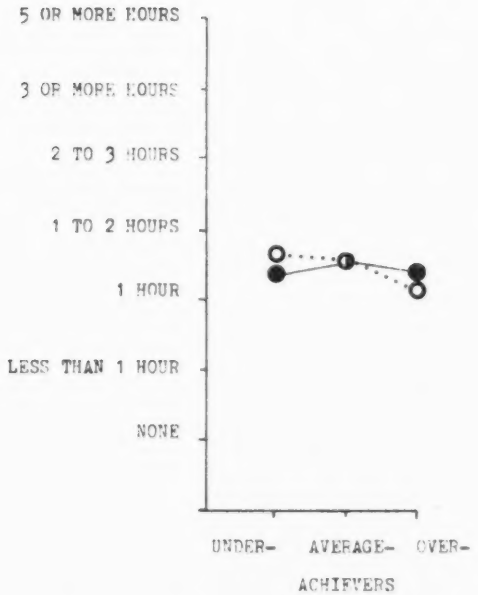

FIG. 54. AVERAGE DAILY T.V. VIEWING TIME DURING THE WEEK. (P)

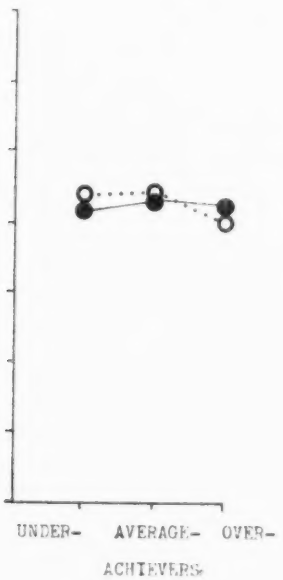

FIG. 55. AVERAGE DAILY T.V. VIEWING TIME ON THE WEEKEND. (P)

between girls and boys. During the week, the children are reported, by their mothers, as watching between one and one to two hours of television daily. On the weekend the daily average increases to between one to two and two to three hours.

Amount of T.V. Viewing and Achievement Status (Child's Report)

Children reported themselves as watching an hour more of television on both weekdays (Figure 56) and weekends (Figure 57) than their parents reported them as watching (Figures 54 and 55). In addition, the Children's Questionnaire yielded distinct differences between boys and girls, with girls reporting the least amount of television viewing at all achievement status levels. Amount of television viewing varied systematically with achievement status for boys' weekday viewing: as boys' achievement status increased, amount of television viewing decreased slightly.

Amount of T.V. Viewing and Socio-Economic Status

The amount of time spent watching television was related to SEI: low SEI mothers reported that their children watched more T.V. per day than did high SEI mothers (Figures 58 and 59). The relationship between SEI and weekday television viewing is stronger than that between achievement status and weekday television viewing (see Figures 56 and 58).

The amount of time spent watching television on the weekends showed fewer differences among the socio-economic classes (Figure 59). Girls appear to watch slightly less television on the weekend than do boys.

Rules Governing Television Viewing: Children's and Parents' Reports

Parents were asked what rules they used to regulate their child's television viewing (Table 8). The parents' reports of what these rules were

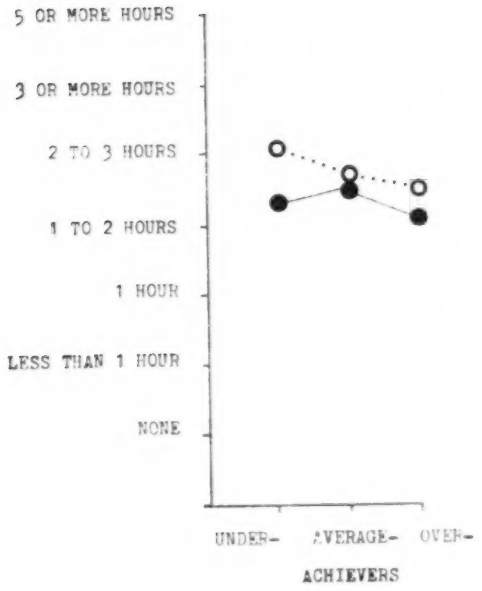

FIG. 56. AVERAGE DAILY T.V. VIEWING TIME DURING THE WEEK. (C)

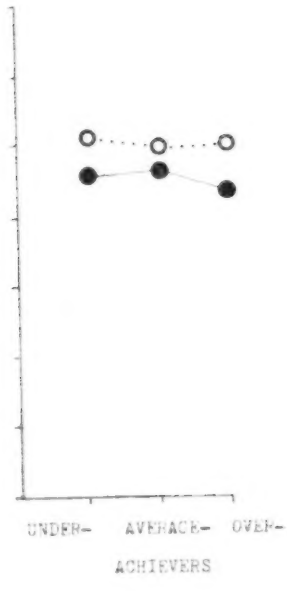

FIG. 57. AVERAGE DAILY T.V. VIEWING TIME ON THE WEEKEND. (C)

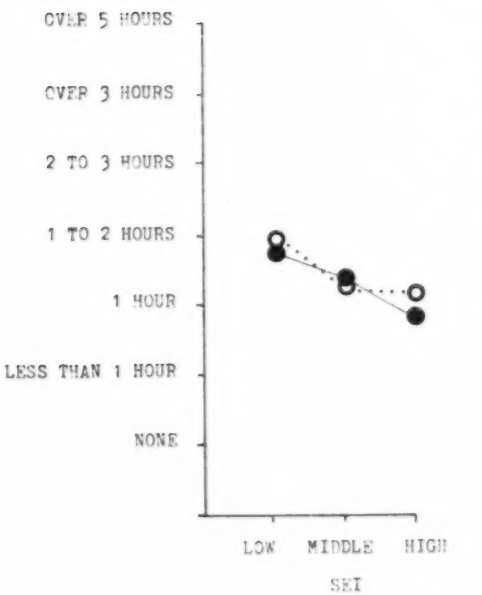

FIG. 58. AVERAGE DAILY T.V. VIEWING TIME DURING THE WEEK. (F)

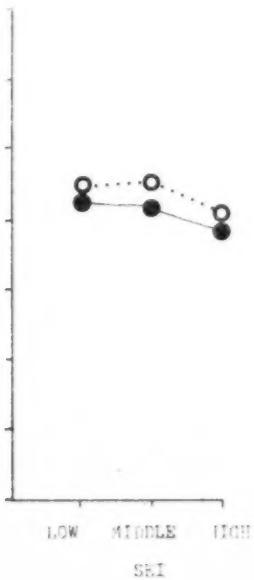

FIG. 59. AVERAGE DAILY T.V. VIEWING TIME ON THE WEEKEND. (F)

TABLE 8

TYPES OF PARENTAL RULES FOR CHILD'S TELEVISION VIEWING, ACCORDING TO THE PARENT'S REPORT

Achievement Status	Sex	No Rules (%)	Amount or Time of Day (%)	Homework or Chores Done First (%)	Type of Show (%)
Under-achievers	Male	38	30	6	26
	Female	38	22	14	26
Average-achievers	Male	30	31	19	20
	Female	27	35	15	23
Over-achievers	Male	26	33	26	15
	Female	18	38	16	28

TABLE 9

TYPES OF PARENTAL RULES FOR CHILD'S TELEVISION VIEWING, ACCORDING TO THE CHILD'S REPORT

Achievement Status	Sex	No Rules (%)	Amount or Time of Day (%)	Homework or Chores Done First (%)	Type of Show (%)
Under-achievers	Male	28	16	53	4
	Female	15	4	72	9
Average-achievers	Male	23	16	60	3
	Female	12	10	75	2
Over-achievers	Male	21	12	60	7
	Female	15	5	71	9

differed considerably from what the children thought that their parent's rules were (Table 9). Parents were more likely to state that they had no rules governing their children's television viewing than were their children. As for the kinds of rules, more than half the children in every category reported that their parents expected them to finish their homework or chores before they could watch television. However, in no category, did more than 26 per cent of the parents mention use of this rule. Parents reported themselves as more likely to place restrictions on their child's television viewing by regulating either the amount of time spent watching or the time of day during which the child could watch television. In addition, a slightly smaller percentage of the parents based their regulations on the type of programme that they would permit their children to view. Children infrequently reported the use of these rules by their parents.

The vast amount of disagreement between parents and children in response to this question is of considerable interest in that it points out major differences in perception, a potential communication breakdown, and a source of conflict in the home.

More important for the purposes of the study is the finding that both the parents' and the children's responses reveal that under-achievers are more likely to have no rules regulating their television viewing than are over-achievers. There is also a slight tendency for girls' rather than boys' television viewing to be governed by rules.

Pupils' Attitudes Toward School and Achievement Status (Pupils' Reports)

Pupils report liking school. Pupils like school, in the majority of cases, for reasons that relate to the activities that go on in school and which are related to the primary aims of the school. Thus, most

pupils indicate they like school for intrinsic reasons, i.e., because they like a particular subject area (Table 10). Girls were more likely to give this type of reason than were boys with this difference between the sexes decreasing as achievement status increased. In general, average- and over-achievers of both sexes were more likely to state intrinsic types of reasons for liking school than were under-achievers.

Pupils were also asked to state the reason why they disliked school, if at all. The majority reported (Table 11) that they had no reason to dislike school. Those who did express some dislike were most likely to indicate that it was some particular aspect of school activity itself that they disliked (i.e., intrinsic reasons were given).

Teachers are believed to be fair in their actions (Figure 60) by both boys and girls of each achievement status.

Thus, children's attitudes toward school do not vary with their achievement status. Berk, Rose and Stewart (1970) found that American pupils' school attitudes were not influenced by their school success, but that the attitudes of English children were. This difference was attributed to the differences existing between the two school systems: English pupils are more aware that their school performance will determine what type of further schooling they will receive (e.g., the eleven plus examinations). It seems reasonable then, that where students are aware that performance has such a great influence on schooling, attitudes towards school should vary with performance.

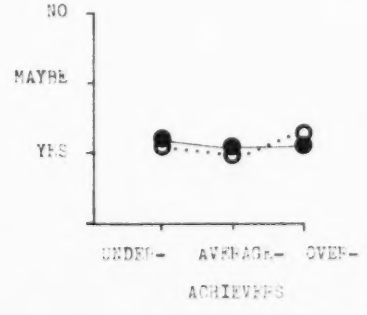

FIG. 60. THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE CHILD THINKS THAT TEACHERS ARE FAIR. (C)

TABLE 10

TYPES OF REASONS GIVEN FOR LIKING SCHOOL

Achievement Status	Types of Reasons			
	No Reason (%)	Social Aspects (%)	Extrinsic Reasons (%)	Intrinsic Reasons (%)
Under-achievers				
Male	17	16	7	61
Female	9	13	6	72
Average-achievers				
Male	11	10	6	73
Female	4	12	5	79
Over-achievers				
Male	12	8	5	75
Female	6	12	6	76

TABLE 11

TYPES OF REASONS GIVEN FOR DISLIKING SCHOOL

Achievement Status	Types of Reasons			
	No Reason * (%)	Social Aspects (%)	Extrinsic Reasons (%)	Intrinsic Reasons (%)
Under-achievers				
Male	89	3	1	7
Female	87	2	6	6
Average-achievers				
Male	89	3	1	7
Female	96	0	2	2
Over-achievers				
Male	90	3	3	3
Female	92	0	5	3

* These are pupils who could find no reason to dislike school. All 518 are included in the calculations.

PARENT'S ATTITUDES

Included in the Parent Interview Questionnaire were several items designed to assess the parents' attitudes and beliefs about education and work in the hope of discovering whether certain general attitudes held by the parents were related to the child's school success.

Does Hard Work "Pay Off"?

The student who feels that hard work will bring him some rewards, such as good grades in school, is likely to have greater school success than another student who feels that what happens to him is simply a matter of good or bad luck, and who also feels that there is little he can do to influence his "fate." Presumably, parents' attitudes regarding the effectiveness of hard work and diligence are one source of the pupils' attitudes towards these matters. It was therefore thought that high achievement status pupils would be more likely to have parents who felt that "hard work pays off." This was not confirmed by the data. Parents of all pupils, whether under-, average-, or over-achievers stated that they believed that hard work payed off. Responses to this question and others similar to it must be treated with caution. Often people will give responses or state attitudes that they know to be socially acceptable, although they may not always behave in a manner consistent with the attitudes that they expressed verbally.

Beliefs in Equality of Opportunity For a College Education

Parents' opinions as to whether or not everyone has an equal opportunity to go to college vary with SEI (Figure 61), but were not found to vary with the achievement status of the child. High SEI parents are more

likely to think that a university education is not universally accessible than are middle or low SEI parents. These latter two groups do not, as groups, feel that college education is available for all: rather they are unsure as to its availability.

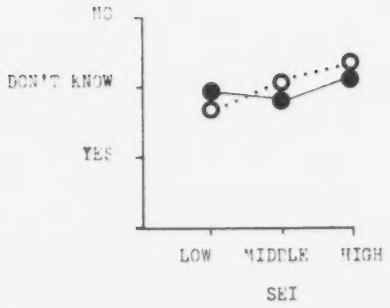

FIG. 6.1. EXTENT TO WHICH PARENTS BELIEVE THAT EVERYONE HAS AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR COLLEGE.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The data on which this paper is based were collected in order to provide some answers to the question, What factors in the pupil's home background influence his performance in school? In order to assess the effects of home background, the population of pupils in the Study of Achievement was divided into three groups, under-, average- and over-achievers. It was hoped that comparisons of the home backgrounds of these three groups of pupils would help reveal why achievement differences exist among pupils of approximately equal potential. Contemporary theories of the development of behaviour have suggested that any person's behaviour at a given point in time is the result of the interplay of his experiences and his environment with his own potential. This statement means that not all individuals are going to react in the same way to any given event. A person's reactions are determined by his past experiences, his present situation and his potential.

In educational terms, a pupil's school success is the result of his prior successes and failures and the reactions from others and himself that these have incurred thereby shaping his present attitudes towards, for example, the importance of doing well in school.

The factors in the pupils' home backgrounds that were found to vary with achievement status or with socio-economic background, which has itself been identified as a factor, influencing school achievement, are briefly summarized[6] below.

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6 These statements are about averages; there are variations within each and every group.

Summary of Results Relating to Achievement Status

1. Achievement status increases as number of children in the family and number of people in the household decreases.

2. Higher achievement status pupils tend to be slightly older than their colleagues.

3. Educational aspirations and expectations are higher for the child who has a higher achievement status. Aspirations and expectations are slightly lower for girls than for boys. Expectations are slightly lower than aspirations for all pupils.

4. Pupils of high achievement status show a slight tendency to have fathers and mothers who have received more education.

5. All mothers would like to have obtained more education than they actually received. There is a slight tendency for the mother's desired education level to be higher if the child is of a higher achievement status.

6. Mothers' opinions of the pupils' schoolwork were higher if the child was of a higher achievement status.

7. Pupils' own opinions of their class standing were not as closely related to their achievement status as were their mothers' opinions of their schoolwork.

8. All pupils, whether under-, average-, or over-achievers express a desire for a college education and believe that their parents would like them to go to college.

9. Occupational aspirations and expectations are higher for the child who has a higher achievement status. Aspirations and expectations are lower for girls than for boys. Expectations are slightly lower than aspirations for all pupils.

10. Fathers of high achievement status pupils tend to have higher status occupations.

11. The occupation that the child would like and the occupation that the child thinks his parents would like for him are very similar. Of the two, the child's achievement status appears to be most closely associated with his own choice of occupation. It should be noted that the occupations named by the girls are all of a lower status than those named by the boys.

12. The type of reason given for choosing a particular occupation varies with the child's achievement status. Higher achievement status pupils give reasons pertaining to what the job involves more than to benefits that it might bring that are incidental to the occupation.

13. Higher achieving pupils do more homework than lower achieving pupils according to the mothers' reports.

14. All pupils, whether under-, average-, or over-achievers receive about the same amount of homework help from their parents, according to the mothers' reports.

15. The pupils report frequencies of doing homework similar to those reported by their mothers.

16. Pupils report receiving help with their homework with similar frequencies to those reported by their mothers. Girls, however, report receiving more homework help than do boys.

17. The number of books in the home suitable for children shows a slight relationship to achievement status: all the groups of girls and the over-achieving boys have the same number, while average and under-achieving boys have fewer books at home suitable for children.

18. Mothers report more frequent visits to the library as the child's achievement status increases. No difference in frequency is reported for boys as opposed to girls.

19. Pupils' reports of the frequency of their library visits also show an increase in frequency of the visits with increasing achievement status, however, in the children's report, girls visit the library more often than do boys.

20. Girls report reading books not connected with their schoolwork more often than do boys. There was no variation in frequency of reading with achievement status.

21. The amount of time spent watching television on weekdays decreases with increasing achievement status, according to the mothers' reports. On weekends, all pupils watch about the same amount of television, and more than on weekdays. No boy-girl differences existed.

22. Pupils give higher estimates of the amount of time they spend watching television than do their mothers. In addition, boys report watching more television than do girls. Otherwise, the trends are the same in both the children's and mothers' reports.

23. In general, all pupils report liking school, and think that teachers are fair.

24. Pupils tend to like school for reasons such as, "Home is boring.", and to dislike school for reasons such as, "The other kids are mean to me.".

25. In general, all parents think that hard workers are likely to get ahead.

26. In general, all parents express some uncertainty as to whether all pupils have equal opportunities for a college education.

Summary of Results Pertaining to Socio-Economic Status

1. High SEI pupils tend to be over-achievers; low and middle SEI pupils tend to be average-achievers.

   In addition, high SEI pupils receive higher Teacher Ratings of their adjustment, performance, creativity and likelihood of school success and higher Metropolitan Achievement Test scores than do middle or low SEI pupils. These two groups tend to get average ratings or MAT scores.

2. Higher educational aspirations and expectations are expressed for their children as the parent's SEI increases.

3. Higher occupational aspirations and expectations are expressed for their children as the parent's SEI increases.

4. In both #2 and #3, aspirations and expectations are lower for girls than for boys at all socio-economic levels.

5. Mother's actual education increases with SEI.

6. Mother's desired education increases with SEI.

7. Pupils with a high SEI background do homework more often than pupils from a low or middle SEI background. These last two groups do homework equally often.

8. The number of books in the home that are suitable for children increases with SEI.

9. The amount of time that the parent reports that his child spends in watching T.V. on weekdays decreases with increasing SEI.

10. On the weekends, all SEI groups report approximately the same amount of T.V. viewing for their children.

Although this study has succeeded in identifying a number of factors in pupils' home backgrounds that are associated with different levels of school achievement, in many instances the strength of the association has been weak. It appears that this study did not directly tap all the factors in the home that influence pupils' school achievements. At this stage one can only guess at possible factors: such unmeasured home characteristics as the nature of the parent-child interactions might be important. The data obtained on the relationship between the child's achievement status and parental occupational and educational aspirations and expectations suggest that it could be fruitful to examine the various ways in which parents may be communicating these hopes and attitudes to their children. In cases where the child does not accept the parents' attitudes, it may be advantageous to look at the influence of his peer group. In addition, a new classificatory system for type of home, rather than using SEI alone could be developed. An interesting initial attack might be to ascertain what different functions the home can serve and the extent to which each of these functions is given emphasis in different homes. It may be, for example, that there are homes which serve only a caretaker function, their concern being predominantly with procurring the bare necessities of life, food and shelter. At the other end of the continuum, there may be a type of home that serves as a learning environment in which parents and children, alone and together, have and make use of opportunities to find out about the world in which they live. It is more likely that this type of home would be found at the upper end of the scale of SEI simply because these people would have no need to exert the majority of their efforts to "making ends meet" in the way that those at the lower end of the scale would feel they must. Some confirmation for this hypothesis

exists in the data: high SEI homes have more books suitable for children; children from high SEI homes spend less time watching television. These two items suggest that children from high SEI homes have more things to do than do other children. The experiences gained by participation in a wider range of non-school activities are likely to benefit the child in his schoolwork. Parents' attitudes toward these extra-curricular activities and to school itself may be expected to differ depending upon whether a caretaker home or a learning-environment home is considered. The former type of home might feel that school and learning are a good thing only if they lead to a job or some other type of financial gain. The latter type of home is likely to regard learning experiences, in and out of school, as ends in themselves.

One fact that appears to stand out in the data of the Study of Achievement that were analyzed in this paper is that it is not the lower socio-economic background pupils who are different, indeed these pupils are similar to the pupils of middle socio-economic status backgrounds. It is the high socio-economic status pupils whose performance and home environments differ from those of the rest of the pupils in the study.

Other independent studies in the department lend support to the idea that pupils from high socio-economic status homes (doctors, engineers, lawyers, accountants, etc.) are distinctly different from other students. These are of course statements about averages: all kinds of pupils may be found in each type of home. This study suggests, however, that in the future, research which focused on the well-to-do could be as informative as that which focused on the poor.

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APPENDIX

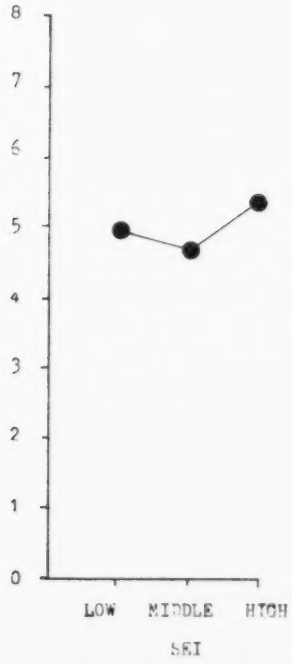

FIG. 1. AVERAGE GRADE 3 ADJUSTMENT SCORE.

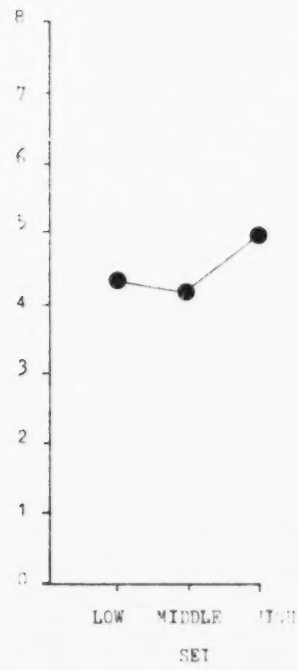

FIG. 2. AVERAGE GRADE 3 PERFORMANCE SCORE.

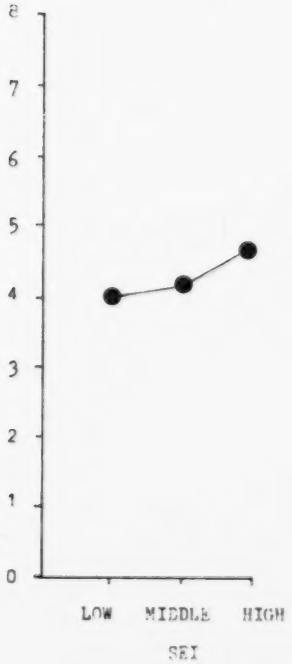

FIG. 3. AVERAGE GRADE 3 CREATIVITY SCORE.

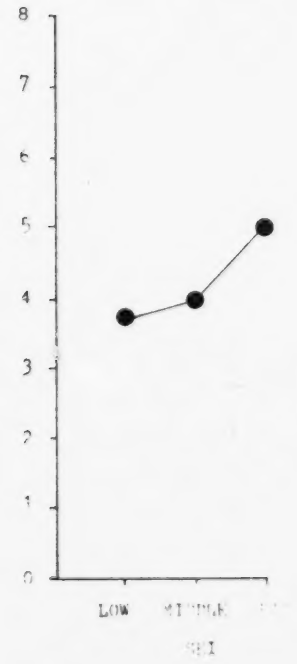

FIG. 4. AVERAGE GRADE 3 PREDICTION SCORE.

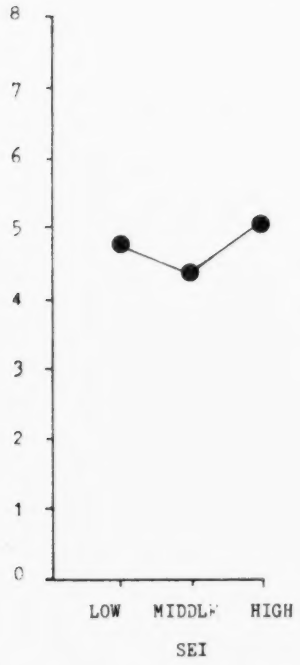

FIG. 5. AVERAGE GRADE 6 ADJUSTMENT SCORE.

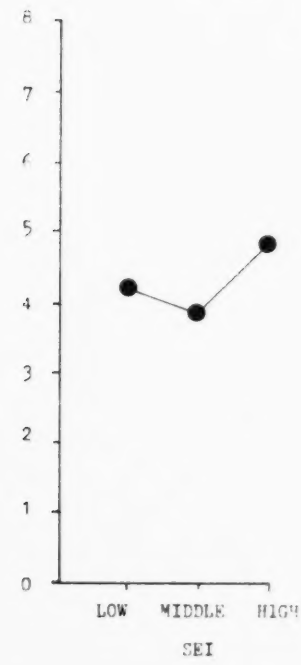

FIG. 6. AVERAGE GRADE 6 PERFORMANCE SCORE.

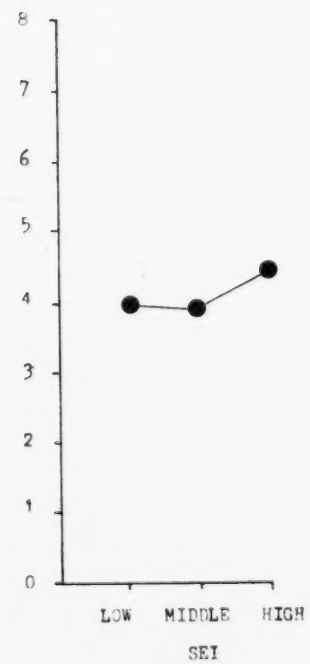

FIG. 7. AVERAGE GRADE 6 CREATIVITY SCORE.

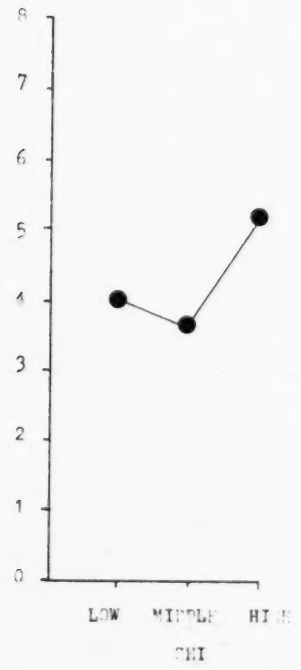

FIG. 8. AVERAGE GRADE 6 PREDICTION SCORE.

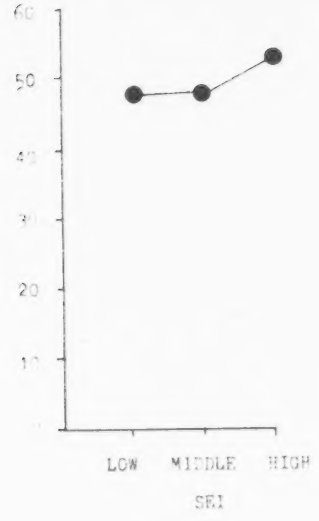

FIG. . . AVERAGE MAT WORD KNOWLEDGE SCORE.

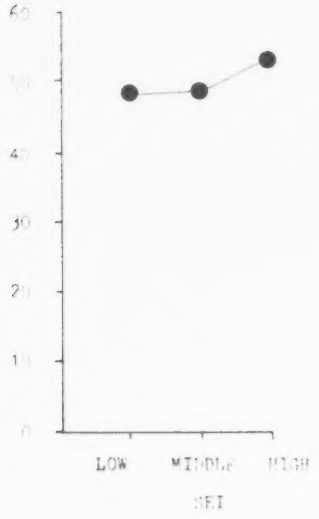

FIG. 10. AVERAGE MAT WORD DISCRIMINATION SCORE.

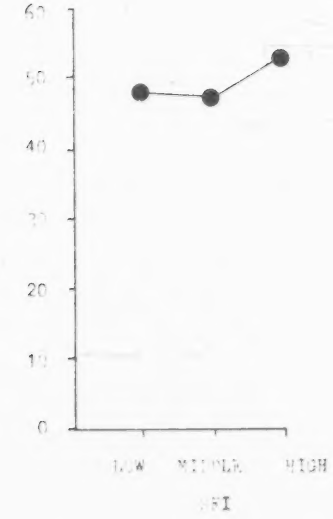

FIG. 11. AVERAGE MAT READING SCORE.

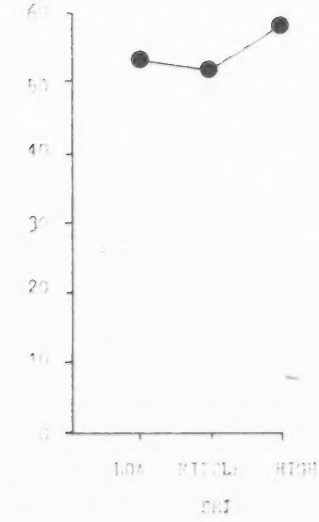

FIG. 12. AVERAGE MAT SPELLING SCORE.

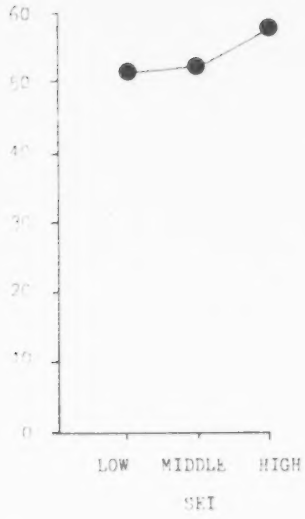

FIG. 13. AVERAGE MAT LANGUAGE USAGE SCORE.

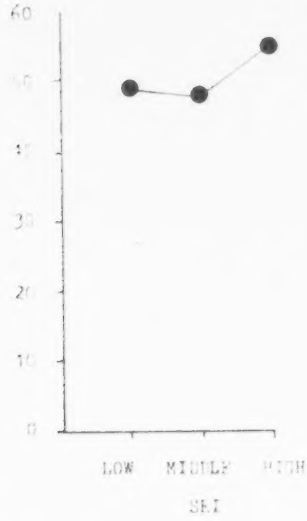

FIG. 14. AVERAGE MAT PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION SCORE.

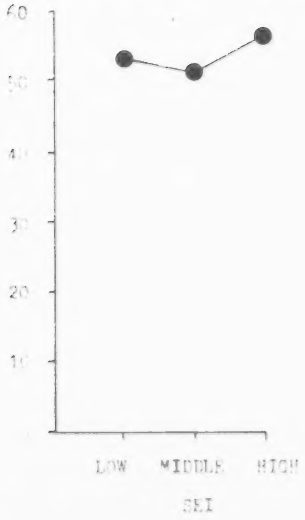

FIG. 15. AVERAGE MAT ARITHMETIC COMPUTATION SCORE.

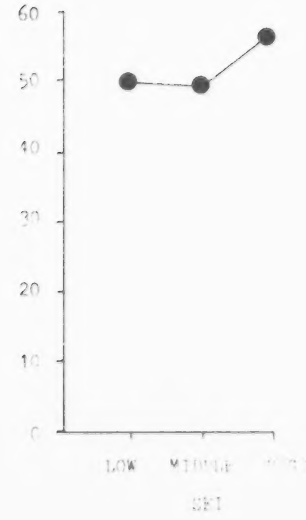

FIG. 16. AVERAGE MAT [illegible] PROBLEM SOLVING SCORE.